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St. Louis, February 22-25, 1936

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SOCIETY FOR CURRICULUM STUDY

Office of the Executive Secretary
Western Reserve University
Cleveland, Ohio

SOCIETY FOR CURRICULUM STUDY

A professional organization including the following workers: curriculum directors in county, city, and state school systems; other administrative and supervisory officers who are primarily interested in curriculum; classroom teachers who are working on special curriculum problems; research workers and authors of curriculum studies; college and university instructors; curriculum workers in non-school organizations; and others who are especially interested in this professional field. Membership upon application to the Executive Secretary. Annual dues \$2.00 per year, including the Curriculum Journal. The annual subscription to the Curriculum Journal is \$2.50 for institutions and non-members.

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THE ST. LOUIS MEETING OF THE SOCIETY FOR CURRICULUM STUDY

Saturday Morning, February 22, 1936

Relating the School Curriculum to the Community
Presiding: Bess Goodykoontz of the U.S. Office of Education

The meeting was opened by Miss Goodykoontz with a word of appreciation to Mr. Keith Tyler for his work in arranging the Saturday program.

The first hour of the morning program was devoted to descriptions of noteworthy practices from the fields of elementary, secondary, and higher education, respectively. The next half hour of the forenoon session was given over to presentations of practical aids to teachers. The last twenty or thirty minutes of the morning were reserved for discussion by a panel composed of the eight speakers.

I. Descriptions of Practice

1. Elementary Education : Presentation by E. W. Jacobsen, Superintendent of Schools of Oakland, California.

Mr. Jacobsen exhibited a silent moving picture taken by the Oakland visual education staff of an activity engaged in by a fifth grade group known as the "Bookworm Club." This film depicts many aspects of newer educational practices in such a way that patrons of the school can quite readily understand what the school is attempting to do. The picture has repeatedly been exhibited before various lay groups in Oakland and has done much to gain a favorable acceptance on the part of Oakland citizens of departures from traditional elementary school practices.

2. Secondary Education

a. Presentation by Edgar Draper, University of Washington

In a discussion with Dr. Parker concerning our presentation of the relationship of the secondary school and the community, he suggested with true Southern courtesy that he confine his remarks to the program in the Fort Worth schools and that I content myself with a mere survey of the remainder of the United States. Since we are due to hear a good deal about Texas this morning from Dr. Parker, I shall refer to many fine things that are being done in other sections of the country and shall incidentally dwell upon the natural beauties of the State of Washington as well as the phenomenal progress that has been made in relating the secondary schools of that State to the community.

In general, secondary schools are being related to the community through the following local programs:

1. Industries--vocational training and vocational guidance
2. Stores and markets--consumption of goods and services
3. Educational facilities--historic and scientific data
4. Public welfare--Christmas and Thanksgiving--adult and pupil study of social needs and deficiencies
5. Transportation of goods and people
6. Communication
7. Public Utilities and municipally owned utilities
8. Government--school, city, state and nation
9. Protection and conservation of life, property, natural resources
10. Recreational opportunities
11. Mores, customs or racial peculiarities of the community

This would indicate that an opportunity exists for practically every secondary field of work or area of learning to be related to community life and education.

As soon as a study is begun of the relationship of the secondary school to the community, it must be admitted that education is as broad as life itself and that the school, as an institution, should be regarded as a point of departure in an educational program rather than as a factory in which a raw material is being made over into a finished product. With this in mind all activities in the community can be analyzed for the purpose of determining their effectiveness in the learning program and the grade levels and areas of learning in which they can be most effectively incorporated. Since the high school pupil is very close to real life activities at an adult level these community enterprises should be planned and organized so that the individual can be integrated into the ever changing and enlarging social order. Community needs as well as community activities can be considered advantageously, since education for an improved community will be an improved education.

I made such a national survey as Dr. Parker suggested and now find myself embarrassed by the wonderful response of teachers, administrators and curriculum experts from all sections of the country. There is no time on this program to deal adequately with these reports; to give a few terse, dry suggestions regarding these living, vital programs would manifestly be unfair and would indicate a lack of appreciation of the work of these people in preparing their elaborate reports.

In my brief report this morning, I will confine my remarks to three cities and one subject-matter field. The cities are Oakland, California; Flint, Michigan; and Seattle, Washington. The subject-matter field is social science.

(Editor's Note: The programs of these three cities will be presented as an article in the May issue of this Journal.)

b. Presentation by John C. Parker, Director of Curriculum,
Fort Worth, Texas

The Fort Worth, Texas, secondary schools are attempting to proceed with a definite attack upon the problems of improvement of learning. Among the ideas influencing the thinking at present are these: A larger portion of the

experience of the student should be problem solving. There must be a more definite relation between the curriculum and the community. The curriculum should be conceived as the sum total of the experience of the student. The community should be conceived in its broadest sense and particular attention accorded climates of opinion, values, and forces.

The attempts to evolve a more definite relationship between the curriculum and the community are proceeding along four lines.

In what respects, and how, should the community determine the nature of the experiences of the student? This approach has resulted in such aspects of the community as speed, movies, education, advertising, purchasing, landscaping, and streets determining the nature of the experiences of the student in language arts; critical analyses of existing groups and occupational surveys in social studies; and areas of life, such as housing, transportation, and food in science, health, and art.

In what respects, and how, should the content of the curriculum (selected previously upon the basis of academic fields of learning) be related to the community? This approach has resulted in such experiences as comparing and contrasting such ideas as evidences of independent thinking versus acceptance of authority in history and in our community and utilizing local architecture, business, etc., in mathematics, arts, science, health, etc.

How can we utilize the available resources of the community in proceeding with the student's experiences? This approach has resulted in surveys of the available resources, and more than 150 different resources being utilized by either taking the students to the various sources or bringing them into the classrooms.

What are the best means of providing for satisfactory orientation of teachers -- including informational background, techniques, and understanding of values? This approach has resulted in much study and discussion and a definite realization that the best means resides in actual doing and illustration rather than in talking about.

The experiences to date with these four approaches seem to be leading to four rather definite conclusions on the part of the teaching personnel. The student gains when the curriculum is related to the community. The values of definitely relating the curriculum to the community have not been satisfactorily achieved in the past. There are many problems present in this area that need careful and persistent attention. There seems to be sufficient justification for the increasing belief that much is to be gained by changing the present basis of organizing the instructional program of secondary schools.

3. Higher Education

a. Presentation by Malcolm MacLean, Dean of General College, University of Minnesota

Because the General College at the University of Minnesota has as its objective the implementing of general education, much of its curriculum is experimentally integrated with the life around it. We want students to understand themselves and the society in which they live. We want them to learn to be adaptable to the various kinds of lives, biological, psychological, economic, political, etc. that they will have to live.

One of our courses, therefore, that in the appreciation of general arts called Art Today, is an integrated attack. It starts with the concept

that art is not higher aesthetic, long-haired, greasy-smocked study for pantywaists but a living and continuous reality. Whereas the Ming pottery and Greek vases in the plate glass cases of museums were the butter jars and wine bottles of older civilizations, the art today for General College students lies in streamlining of current automobiles, in the architecture on the Minnesota campus and of the flats and houses in which they live, in the choice of neckties and selection of stockings. In this course, close integration is made with the frequent exhibits of the University Gallery where students are subjected to painting and sculpture, both classical and modern, but most of our work is done in the area of developing a comprehension and appreciation of the things about them.

In other courses, such as those in history and government, integrations are likewise made with the life of the campus and community. A course is given in the history of Minnesota and another in Our Economic Life, both of which start with revisions of portions of the State Planning Board, an analysis of the State of Minnesota as it is, and for young people the majority of whom will pass their lives here.

Likewise in the area of Human Biology the student studies his own human body, its organs and their functions and comes to understand the human biological animals about him. In this course also there is constant interpretation to these students of experimentation going on in bacteriology, surgery, endocrinology and the like in the Medical School of the University. This is supplemented by the wider socio-economic-biologic factors implied in vital statistics and population trends.

In an area such as written and oral communication, it is our objective not to have these youngsters write or speak the say-it-with-flowers, pseudo Oxford-Hollywood brand of English but rather to modify and mellow and make effective the colloquial speech and writing of the American midwest.

These general principles apply throughout in the building of our curriculum.

b. Presentation by G. Robert Koopman, Department of
Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan.

The Reorganization of a Teachers College Program
(Central State Teachers College, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.)

Teacher training in Michigan is accomplished largely in four relatively strong and well-equipped teachers colleges. Early in its planning for a program of curriculum development which would include elementary, secondary and college levels, the Department of Public Instruction proposed to the State Board of Education that one teachers college be designated as an experimental center for curriculum development at the college level. The State Board of Education, after due deliberation and consultation, nominated the Central State Teachers College at Mt. Pleasant. President E. C. Warriner and his faculty voted to assume the responsibility of setting up an experimental curriculum. The planning of the new curriculum was actually begun by the faculty in October, 1934.

There were two direct objectives to be accomplished. In the first place, the general situation demanded the development of a program of teacher preparation more adequate to the present needs of Michigan. In the second place, the development of a reorganized instructional program at the junior college level, of value for general education, was one of the obvious needs of the total program.

The period of pre-planning consisted of the school year of 1934-35. During that period the efforts of the members of the faculty and of the Department were concentrated on the development of an effective organization for co-operative planning and research by the faculty, on the location and study of noteworthy practice and the application of such practice to the local situation, on the development of a general method, on the development of an organizational scheme in harmony with the new curriculum, and on the analysis of the functional needs of teachers.

The analysis of the life of individuals and groups resulted in the recognition of four types of important relationships: home, social, professional and personal. The educational program was to be built around the various activities of an individual as a student, citizen, home member and teacher with special emphasis on those techniques and qualities important to effective living.

The pre-planning period resulted in a set of functional needs which serve as educational objectives for the pre-professional period. These needs are divided into three areas as follows:

1. Area of Personal Relationships
2. Area of Social Relationships
3. Area of Home Relationships

A group of one hundred students rather than a class is ultimately to be the unit of organization. Instructional activities take place in three situations: in meetings of the entire group, in smaller laboratory groups for individual work, and on the individual appointment basis. Movies, jury-panels, lectures, planned group interviews and group discussions are all held in the large group meetings.

For the first year of experimental teaching only thirty-five students are enrolled in the reorganized curriculum. This results in great economics in developing the appraisal program and serves as a satisfactory basis of experimentation for curriculum development.

Instructors assigned to the group are centered around a personnel officer who is most responsible for orientation and who keeps the behavior journal and other records.

The work of the first two years is pre-professional and is planned as a large unit of instruction with specific responsibilities delegated from time to time to certain instructors. It is thought that the program of each year may have certain major centers of interest without disregarding the remaining objectives of the pre-professional course.

The freshman curriculum is outlined as follows:

- a. "Social Relationships" - core area for year
- b. "Biological World" - service course
- c. Oral and written expression
- d. "Reading and Mathematics" - remedial instruction
- e. Orientation - adjustments in such fields as personality problems, educational problems, leisure time activities, time budgeting, living conditions, etc.
- f. Elective - (from outside the experimental curriculum)

Continuing the pre-professional work the sophomore curriculum consists of:

- a. "Personal and Family Relationships" - core area for year
(orientation is included plus functional mathematics, literature, introduction to the fine arts, and is based primarily upon the nature of the growth of the individual and other physical concepts.)

- b. "Physical World" - service course
- c. Elective - (from outside the experimental curriculum)

The general method calls for an individualization of instruction through actual individualization of study units as well as by the selection of content by the individual himself. Every effort is made to evolve a curriculum which is flexible and constantly changing and arises out of the present needs and interest of young people more largely than their anticipated needs. The emphasis in the program is on the students creating the curriculum. The teacher in this process must have at his hand the necessary kinds of data and materials from the various fields of knowledge. Such material may rest on an analysis of the activities of young people and of adults. It is not the teacher's function, however, to present this material in any formal fashion.

A second emphasis is that of "social participation and social action." This is illustrated by the community survey; community projects, such as the establishment of a community center; and by capitalization of "work," "home," and "out-of-school" experiences.

The third major emphasis is on guidance as an integral part of the teaching activity. This has amounted to the redefinition of both guidance and teaching until these two meanings have become practically synonymous. Educational activities of learners come out of individual plans made by the student through counselled self-direction.

In spite of an insistent need for appraisal there has still been insufficient appraisal and very incomplete reporting. There has been a tendency to report programs in terms of (a) objectives, (b) organization for attaining objectives, or (c) activities used in attaining objectives. There has been little criticism of the social validity of objectives and only a sparse reporting of the degree of attainment of objectives.

The appraisal program at Central State Teachers College has four major objectives:

- a. To discover the degree to which functional needs are valid and the degree to which they serve as effective educational objectives.
- b. To discover the degree to which objectives are achieved.
- c. To determine the efficiency of techniques of experimentation employed.
- d. To determine the efficiency of methods and curricular activities used.

The program of appraisal is set up for a nine-year period but is to be gradually transferred to the faculty members concerned.

At the present time most of the college faculty is assisting in some way in the experiment. Aside from teaching personnel and the great amount of time given by President Warriner, the staff at the present time consists of five faculty members released from about one-fourth of a normal load in order to do curriculum work. This assistance is in exchange for the loan of one of our research assistants for relief teaching.

The Division of Curriculum Research of the Department of Public Instruction provides money for expenses and makes available the general resources of the State Department, including the counsel of Dr. Eugene B. Elliott as Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The ultimate appraisal of our attempt to reorganize a teachers college curriculum must be made in the future. For the present we can report only a profitable experience in working cooperatively toward an objective of unquestioned social value.

II. Aids to the Teacher

1. Pamphlets and Other Enrichment Material By Sam Everett, University of Illinois

The basic changes now under way in American life require that the older, formal, academic type of school must be replaced by schools which are conceived in such a way as to maintain a close functional relationship with community life. This is the theme which I have chosen to follow in my discussion of the question, "Aids to the Teacher in Pamphlets and Other Enrichment Materials". The discussion of this theme is organized around four major points, namely the use in the schools of the following: 1st, Community Surveys, 2nd, Pamphlets and Enrichment Materials, 3rd, Pictorial Materials, and 4th, Radio and the Cinema.

I : Community Surveys

One of the most effective ways of relating the work of the schools to the life of the community is through the extensive use of community surveys at all educational levels. Many of the more progressive elementary schools are already making provision for children's observing and reproducing in some fashion in the classroom the various community activities which have been observed. Visits are made to stores, post offices, police departments, docks, railway yards, milk dispensaries, and other necessary community services. These activities are in an important sense a type of community survey at the elementary level. Such work tends to vitalize education in elementary schools. Elementary education may thus assume a more meaningful type of community function.

Community contacts at the Junior and Senior high school levels can, of course, more nearly approach an adult type of survey. But to carry on this type of program it is necessary that administrators and teacher come into much closer touch with various aspects of community life. In the past, teachers too largely limited their activities to the classroom; they have felt that their teaching activities should be carried on within the four walls of the school.

What should teachers know about their own communities in order to direct pupils in making community surveys. The Russell Sage Foundation has published a valuable pamphlet entitled, "What Social Workers Should Know About Their Own Communities."⁽¹⁾ The title might well have been, "What Educators Should Know About Their Own Communities," for if teachers and administrators are to integrate more closely the life of the school with the life of the community, they must know intimately what is going on outside the school. The community areas of special significance covered in the Russell Sage Foundation pamphlet include the Historical Setting, City Administration and Finance, Industry, Health, Housing, Recreation, the Family, the Foreign Born Adult, Delinquency, and Community Organizations.

The National League of Women Voters has also produced a small pamphlet entitled, Know Your Town.⁽²⁾ This contains "ten sets of twenty ques-

(1) Byington, Margaret F., What Social Workers Should Know About Their Own Communities, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1929.

(2) National League of Women Voters, Know Your Town, 532 Seventeenth St., N.W., Washington, D. C., 1927.

tions" on areas of community living similar to those listed above. The pamphlet is usable for guiding pupils in making community surveys. Another publication entitled "How Good Is Your Town"(3) is valuable inasmuch as it contains a detailed form for making community surveys. Moreover the sociological study, Middletown,⁽⁴⁾ by Robert and Helen Lynd is of special value to persons working in an urban community, while the book Farm Children, An Investigation of Rural Child Life in Selected Areas of Iowa,⁽⁵⁾ is most suggestive to teachers who are using the survey technique in rural communities.

Experiments in the use of the survey technique are being carried on in a great many schools and a number of teacher training institutions. Perhaps the finest example of the use of this technique reported in a course of study is to be found in the publication, Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order,⁽⁶⁾ an Ann Arbor Social Studies course for the Junior High School. At the teacher training level Dr. Henry Harap has directed his undergraduate students at Western Reserve University in making a Survey of Cleveland.⁽⁷⁾ As a part of their class work the students carried on a survey which at the present time is the most comprehensive survey of Cleveland in existence. Dr. Harap's contribution at the teacher training level is very suggestive for the carrying on of community surveys at all educational levels.

Boys and girls can be stimulated to study any number of local problems, such as health needs and facilities, play grounds, unemployment, relief, library facilities, social work, educational facilities, and the like. It is, however, necessary that these activities be carefully planned in advance, that they be closely articulated with the curriculum work of the school, and that pupils be stimulated, not only to make such studies, but also be encouraged to participate with adults in the improvement of various aspects of community living.

II : Pamphlets and Enrichment Materials

It is not only important that pupils should learn about, and participate in, the life of their own communities; they should explore the ways in which communities other than their own carry on similar functions. Furthermore, their conception of the community should be broadened to include the state, the region, the nation, and the world. This exploration outside the local community must in large measure be done vicariously. It can be greatly stimulated through the use of pamphlets and other enrichment materials.

There are available literally thousands of pamphlets, bulletins, charts, posters, graphs, and the like, which can be used in the curriculum work of the school. These are produced by research organizations, private business firms, national welfare associations, federal and state departments and even by private individuals.

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- (3) Williams, Aubrey W., How Good Is Your Town, Wisconsin Conference of Social Work, Madison, Wisconsin, 1930.
 - (4) Lynd, Robert and Helen, Middletown, Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1929.
 - (5) Baldwin, Fillmore, and Hadley, Farm Children, D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1930.
 - (6) Koopman, G. Robert, chairman, Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order, Board of Education, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1933.
 - (7) Harap, Henry, Survey of Cleveland, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. The material in mimeographed form as produced by Dr. Harap's students, may be secured for \$1.00.

A number of Curriculum Laboratories have specialized in the collection and cataloging of such enrichment materials. A bulletin published in 1935 by the Mississippi State Department of Public Instruction entitled, *Procedures for Production of Curriculum Materials*,⁽⁸⁾ contains lists of free and inexpensive instructional materials, together with the sources from which they may be procured.

At the University of Illinois we are collecting in the Curriculum Laboratory, this type of material in such areas as foreign language, social studies, science, music, industrial arts, home economics, and recreation.⁽⁹⁾ In the field of foreign language a recent circular from this Curriculum Laboratory lists free posters and pictorial booklets published by various foreign travel agencies, visual aids usable in teaching French, German, and Latin, newspapers published in French and German, and sources of names of pupils now attending foreign high schools with whom American boys and girls may communicate. Materials usable in club work and object teaching are also listed with sources. As Mr. C. O. Arndt, head of the Department of Foreign Language, University High School, points out "A wealth of enrichment material for the study of foreign language is available...the major objective in foreign language teaching should be the direction of the high school student in the development of an ability to read with understanding and enjoyment the literature of foreign peoples to the end that they gain an intelligent insight into their thought world and their culture. For the realization of this aim it is obvious that the use of enrichment materials is essential."⁽¹⁰⁾

Hundreds of pamphlets and bulletins are published which may be used in Social Studies and Science work. There is, moreover, an abundance of free material procurable for improving the teaching in such fields as industrial arts and home economics. The use of written and graphic material can be used to enrich and make more vital the teaching of any subject. Its use brings pupils into realistic touch with broad social problems and tends to give them the sense of the larger community life outside their own village, town, or city.

III : Pictorial Materials

Many new problems have arisen because of the increase in the school population and the change in the character of the high school population. Large numbers of pupils are unable to read effectively, even when entering high school. Great numbers have difficulty in understanding abstract ideas, concepts, and generalizations, when presented through the medium of the printed word. Learning for this type of pupil is made more meaningful, as it tends to be for all pupils, through the wide-spread use of pictorial materials containing brief printed explanatory statements. The publication and use of great masses of such materials will become one of the major developments of the future.

(8) State Department of Education, *Procedures for Production of Curriculum Materials*, Jackson, Mississippi, 1935.

(9) Curriculum Laboratory, College of Education, 305 University High School, Urbana, Illinois. The author of this article is Director of the Laboratory.

(10) Arndt, C. O., *Modern Languages and Modern Life*, an unpublished paper, University High School, University of Illinois.

One outstanding publication in this area should be known to all teachers and administrators. It is Building America, Picture Texts, which is a publication of the Society for Curriculum Study, 425 West 123rd Street, New York City. This project comprises a series of "photographic studies that will give youth and adults a clearer understanding of modern problems and basic activities of American life." Eight issues are published for the comparatively small sum of \$1.50 a year while quantity orders can be procured at reduced rates. Besides the inclusion of many vital and interesting photographs, Building America includes accurate and tested data describing each subject. There is an accompanying Teachers Guide giving numerous helpful suggestions regarding the use of the report. The social implication of facts are stressed throughout. The texts thus far produced are those on Housing, Food, Men and Machines, Transportation, and Health. There is little doubt but that such materials will in the future be increasingly used at all educational levels.⁽¹¹⁾

The time will come when American education will cease to be characterized by the formal method and academic courses which now obtain at all educational levels. There is will become community centered. Local communities will serve as laboratories for educational research by pupils, teachers, and interested parents. Many improvements in country, town, and city life will be suggested by such activities. The schools will collect great masses of pamphlets, collators, and other enrichment materials dealing with the modern scene. Learning will be gained through the wide use of movies and radios in the school and in the community. Indeed the modern needs of elementary children and of high school youth require that these changes in educational practice come as speedily as possible.

2. Motion Pictures and Radio

By Edgar Dale, Ohio State University

The motion picture is not used today with any regularity in our schools. Cline Koon of the U.S. Office of Education estimated two years ago that not more than 10 per cent of the schools were using motion pictures with any degree of regularity. The Oakland, California, schools have an excellent department of visual instruction, yet last year they used not more than three reels of film for each teacher in the system. A Madison, Wisconsin, teacher of general science told me recently that she used about 75 films a year in her general science classes. Obviously, there are great opportunities for increased use of films. And why not? Finances are one major factor. But lack of teacher training, inadaptability of principals and superintendents is another.

The State of Illinois has a unique cooperative library which is owned by more than 200 different schools in that state. One joins this library by depositing one 34-dollar film and a ten dollar bill. This 34-dollar fee gives two years' free service---one can use a maximum of 70 pay films and as many so-called "free" or advertising films as he wishes. Dr. Russell Gregg, who has charge of this library, reports that approximately 6,000 reels of film will be distributed by him this year.

(11) Educators who are especially interested in pictorial materials may procure from the Curriculum Laboratory at the University of Illinois an extensive annotated list of books, picture texts, pamphlets, and magazines which feature pictorial representation.

A third type of film library is typified by that owned by the Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin. Films are rented to schools at 50¢ to \$1.50 per reel.

Many schools use free films. These may be the fairly satisfactory ones available from the department of agriculture or other departments of the government or those which are sent out by manufacturing or other groups of various sorts.

That care needs to be used in selecting these materials is self-evident. No single school however can evaluate all this film material. One of the functions of the proposed American Film Institute will be the setting up of evaluatory bodies through regular educational societies. These committees which are now functioning in the American Council on Education will review and evaluate films from the point of view of their technical excellence, the accuracy of the factual material presented in them, and their teaching value.

The theatrical film must be considered too as a possible teaching aid. We are desirous in our curricular work to build attitudes, develop interests, sensitize pupils to current social problems. What better way of sensitizing pupils to war propaganda than through the use of the motion picture, "The Man Who Reclaimed His Head". "I Am a Fugitive" would be a valuable teaching aid when one is considering the question of unemployment. Study of marriage and divorce would probably be assisted by the film "Wednesday's Child".

Possible, too, is the development of shorter strips of films. Teaching films have been stereotyped to fifteen minute length. Many generalizations and abstractions would be illuminated by showing 100 foot strips of films lasting only a few minutes on the screen. Little or nothing has been done to study such short films as teaching aids.

Radio as a method for the specific teaching of school subjects is still in the experimental stage. Just where the whole program will settle down is not so clear. Obviously we should not use it as a substitute for methods now working fairly satisfactorily. Radio is especially fitted for music, drama, and the presentation of current information such as news and other important information which is not readily available in school libraries or textbooks.

Not only must schools take advantage of the aids in radio and motion pictures now available -- they must create them. Motion picture aids that have been created by schools and colleges are increasing markedly. The Los Angeles schools produced a film on "Table Manners" for their home economics work that was excellent. Mr. C. M. Cooley of the Wauwatosa, Wisconsin, high school has produced one of the finest films on high school activities that I have ever seen. Denver has produced films, so has Akron. The University of Minnesota under the direction of Robert Kissack has produced an excellent two reel film with accompanying sound dealing with tuberculosis. Programs produced for radio presentation ought to be recorded in order that other schools may have the benefit of other schools experience.

Finally may I indicate that one of the most important jobs in this connection is to set up adequate evaluatory techniques for all aids.

First, there is the type of evaluation that can be done by societies such as this. We ought to be evaluating aids right now. Second, there is the evaluating that teachers, themselves, must do as a follow-up for the first type. In other words, they may not be able to use the aids which have been suggested by this society or others as valuable. They may not fit the objectives of specific schools. Third, there is the evaluation that students, them-

selves, must learn to make of these new media. Propaganda, itself, is not a menace. Every group including ours develops its propaganda. It is rather the blind, uncritical acceptance of propaganda that is dangerous.

As we begin using radio and motion pictures, then, we must equip our students with evaluatory methods which will enable them to see through false claims, inaccurate data, biased statements. Those of you who are interested in this problem of teaching discrimination can get from Mr. Tyler now or by writing him, reprints of materials in this field.

III : Discussion

Panel members: Edgar Dale, Edgar Draper, Samuel Everett, E. W. Jacobsen, G. Robert Koopman, Malcolm MacLean, John C. Parker, Laura Zirbes.

A question was raised by someone in the audience concerning the social desirability of certain practices portrayed in the Oakland film. Mr. Meriam observed that the school should do more than mirror the status quo -- he gave it as his opinion that children in the public schools should be taught to improve their respective communities. Miss Zirbes and Mr. Everett concurred. The former called attention to the work of the rural missions of Mexico as indicative of what she believed American schools could and should be doing. The latter declared that both elementary and secondary school students should be educated for life as it might be lived as well as for life as it is being lived. Mr. Parker made a plea for more provision for student evaluation of social reality. Mr. MacLean was emphatic in his declaration that the school must substitute real experiences for verbalism if students are to learn to manipulate our present day complex interdependent industrial society.

Saturday Afternoon, February 22, 1936.

Two separate programs were scheduled for the afternoon session. One was devoted to "Evaluation", the other to "Integration". At both sessions papers were read and a panel discussion was held.

Group I. The Place of Evaluation in the Instructional Program
Presiding: Ben Wood, Educational Records Bureau

1. The Importance of Evaluation in a Program of Effective Learning

By Ralph Tyler, Ohio State University

(This paper has not yet been received - Editor)

2. Limitations, Illusions, and Dangers in the Evaluation of Learning

By Jesse Newlon, Teachers College

The necessity for making judgments as to the worth and effectiveness of a program of education is obvious. In fact, we are making such value judgments every day. This necessity has become all the more imperative in our complex and transitional contemporary society. Education is an enterprise of tremendous scope and importance in the modern world. It must be patent even to the superficial observer that education, if misdirected or allowed to drift, may do incalculable injury to the very interests it is supposed to serve and that our first responsibility as educators is that of refashioning the American

school in the light of new conditions and needs. But how are we to judge the worth of the program we devise? How can we determine the effectiveness of this program and of the procedures which it embodies?

Evaluation, then, has two aspects. One has to do with the formulation of the program and the selection of procedures appropriate to its realization. The other has to do with the measurement of the effectiveness of learning under this program. The two aspects are clearly distinguishable but mutually dependent.

There is, nevertheless, an important difference between measuring the effectiveness with which particular understandings and skills are learned and the evaluation of the lasting results of an educational program. To determine how well a particular thing has been learned or skill mastered may not tell us whether it is worth learning or whether it has been learned at the best time or in the proper connection.

The development of techniques of objective measurement, achievement and diagnostic tests, has represented an important contribution to education. The uses of these instruments are very great. But the limitations and the dangers in their use, though long ago pointed out by Dewey, Bagley, and many others, have apparently not been fully realized either by the enthusiasts developing and using them or by the educational profession generally. In our enthusiasm for, and almost obsession with, objective measurement in the last two decades, other much more critical educational problems have received but scant attention, have even seemed unimportant. Purposes have been taken largely for granted. There has been too little disposition among scientific workers in education to question any of the fundamentals of the existing schools, an attitude of mind anything but scientific. The norms established by the tests have acquired an undeserved authority. Too often accepted as reliable guides in curriculum construction, tests have tended to crystallize existing practice, to prevent rather than to facilitate needed changes. This was true for nearly twenty critical years and still is too largely true, though now, through the leadership of Ben Wood, Ralph Tyler, and a few others, the testing movement is being more wisely directed. The perspective of the makers and users of tests is gradually being enlarged. In the school and college experiment of the Progressive Education Association, Dr. Tyler is linking the processes of testing and evaluation more closely with the learning process than has hitherto been the case, through working cooperatively with teachers. But it is still true, and always will be true, that any system of examining, testing, or evaluating tends to control teaching.

The attempts to measure and control the development of certain traits fastens the attention of teachers and learners on these particular traits, whether initiative, integrity, sense of social responsibility, open-mindedness, cooperativeness, or what you will. Psychologically the dangers of overemphasis are serious. None of these traits exists as an absolute or in the abstract. Each has a content, a meaning and a texture in the minds of the learners and of the teachers, and evaluations, of necessity, are made in terms of these particular meanings. Each is relative to some outlook on life and to some concrete cultural situation. Open-mindedness as an abstraction has but little significance. Open-mindedness under what circumstances and with reference to what? Open-mindedness with reference to birth control, or the collective ownership of the instruments of production and distribution?

If content is not given consciously by students and teachers, the traits will take on meaning and color from the prevailing mores. There is, too, serious objection to focusing the attention of youth and teachers on these

traits as though they were the ends of education. The result may easily be the development of a new kind of insufferable cad.

Recently, much promising experimentation has been carried on with other methods of measuring or evaluating the work of the school in terms of its effect on the learner. These methods include observation, anecdotal reports by teachers, the collection and appraisal of the work of the students, and records of their cultural activities outside of school. Techniques are also being developed to get at the interests, the intellectual and recreational habits of youth. These methods, used with proper discretion, constitute an invaluable supplement to standardized tests. The fact that the element of subjectivity enters by no means invalidates them.

The greatest weakness in current practice, as I see it, is at the point of purpose, educational philosophy, or frame of reference. All measurement in the physical world must be made with reference to some point, some bench mark, some fixed standard of value. It is no less so in education. The worth of a program and the effectiveness of learning, broadly speaking, can be judged only with reference to some point of view with regard to purpose, some educational and social frame of reference. But the process is not so simple as in the physical realm. A foot rule may be used to measure various things, men or trees, without affecting the things measured, but it is not so in education.

The most important problem of contemporary education has been largely ignored, whether from indifference or lack of courage to undertake the social analysis essential to the formulation of policies suited to a time of momentous decision in American history. This must be the first task of the evaluator, and until he has undertaken that task he can have no reliable point of reference from which to judge education. Such an analysis involves the necessities, the possibilities, and the desirabilities in American life.

We should recognize the fact that time alone will judge whether the best program of education we can devise in our generation will serve the best interests of the American people in the next generation. There is no greater illusion than the belief that we can devise objective methods of evaluation that will tell us today with definiteness and finality of the worth or effects thirty or sixty years hence of contemporary educational programs. And this is not to say that we are left completely in the dark. But it does mean that we cannot rely on quantitative measures or other recently developed techniques, useful as they are, to map our educational course. That requires statesmanship. What we do must be viewed in the light of history. The light thrown on our problems by even the best of the methods of appraisal under discussion pales into insignificance beside the illumination afforded by experience critically interpreted by every means at our disposal, and by the teachings of history, anthropology, sociology, political science, economics, philosophy, properly applied to the problems of education. If we steer our course by these lamps of experience and knowledge, we are least likely to go astray.

As I view the situation, the fact that evaluation is integral with the process of learning leads to but one conclusion. Teachers, evaluators, and administrators must work together over a long period of time, probing deep into the problems of American culture, formulating on the basis of this analysis a curriculum for the school and devising means of arriving at the best possible judgments as to the worth of the program so constructed and of the effectiveness of the resultant learnings. The most practical procedure might well be to make available to a man like Dr. Tyler or Dr. Wood a grant of a hundred and fifty thousand dollars a year for a period of ten or fifteen years to be ex-

pendent upon a program of evaluation in a single well financed and well staffed school, selected for that purpose. This school, or school system, should embrace all grades, represent a cross-section of social classes and be large enough for the purposes of this experiment. Evaluators and teachers should live together through this period, carrying on the extended and intensive inquiries and discussions essential to the formulation of purposes and the working out of a program for the achievement of these purposes. Such a grant would make it possible to bring into these deliberations some of the most competent minds in the entire country in all fields of scholarship and endeavor. At the end of this period, I should think that a few tentative conclusions might be made.

3. Discussion (Reported by Miss Bennett)

Panel members: Margaret E. Bennett, H. B. Bruner, P. W. L. Cox, S. P. McCutchen, Jesse Newlon, J. R. Overturf, Hilda Taba, Ralph W. Tyler, J. W. Wrightstone.

Bruner: Two extremes in viewpoint have been presented. We have six basic problems to consider in approaching this task of evaluation:

1. What kind of a world do we live in and what kind of a world should we have?
2. What philosophy of life and education can and should we build?
3. What guiding principles shall we set up for constructing curriculum materials in consonance with the philosophy at which we have arrived?
4. How can we actually construct materials most effectively?
5. How can these materials be given the most revealing try-outs?
6. How can the work be continuously evaluated?

Mr. Newlon has emphasized the first three, but we need to give more attention to the last three, especially number 4. How shall we evaluate our curriculum materials?

Newlon: We cannot keep the social order out of our consideration; it is fundamental; and it does not lend itself to the objective measurement which you have in mind. It is a matter of philosophy, not measurement.

Cox: We are carrying over in our thinking standards and conceptions of 10 or 20 years ago. Our newer ideas and methods emphasize integration of personality, the total functioning individual, not the specifics the measurement people wish to evaluate.

Taba: Is evaluation a part of the educative process or is it something done after the process has taken place? Can we project long time goals and measure their achievement as we go ahead?

Newlon: The two things cannot be separated.

Tyler: Sound evaluation is a cyclical process. Our objectives are a point of departure, we note what happens in the process, and this in turn reacts on our objectives.

Cox: Objectives cannot be the same for all children. We must vary objectives and curriculum to interests and needs of individuals. True curriculum is outside of the obvious curriculum and our tests. It resides within the child and involves what he reacts to.

Bennett: Does Mr. Newlon intimate when he says personality cannot be studied objectively, that it is a result of absorption from the environment, and should not be dealt with directly, that different psychology of learning is involved in behavior reactions, attitudes, and wholesome life adjustments than that involved in learning skills, acquiring information, etc. Can we leave our major goals of personality to chance or incidental learning, or can we in some measure approach them directly and objectively in a wholesome manner?

Newlon: Traits are abstractions about which we know little and are better left to general influence of environment. Undesirable to focus attention on them.

Bennett: I am not speaking of specific traits. They may be in the same category as our outmoded bond psychology. But should we not posit mental hygiene standards for the total functioning personality toward which we work as cautiously and directly as for standards of physical hygiene?

Taba: Can learnings be evaluated by other than objective processes?

Newlon: How can we determine whether we wish to live in a Facist or Democratic state? This involves values and ideals which do not lend themselves to objective evaluation.

Wrightstone: Evaluation takes time. We have not yet developed all the techniques we need.

Newlon: Too much time and emphasis have been placed on technical aspects and not enough probing has been done into purposes and values. The final answers to evaluation are illusions.

McCutchen: We need more rather than less evaluation, because this will help to put emphasis rightly for teachers on objectives.

Wood: I wish to return to Dr. Taba's question. How far in the future can we project our purposes? Many pupils are "taking" subjects without getting anything out of them; many are failing. We should do more to understand the individual and what he really needs. A survey revealed that on the average not more than one and one-half thirty minute tests are given per pupil. We need to study the individual more and fit the curriculum to him.

Overturf: The public expects achievement in information and skills. Dr. Cox has said we should get out of children's way in growing. Tax payers may desire us to if we don't meet their standards.

Cox: Only about ten per cent need teaching assistance; the rest can go ahead anyway.

Wrightstone: Guidance is an essential part of all teaching. The teacher is an interpreter of social culture.

Wood: Teachers cannot abdicate responsibility for helping to determine what individuals shall study, but there should not be autocratic compulsion. I have not much hope for long term general objectives. We can approach the problem in terms of individual's goals in the light of their interests, abilities, etc.

Bruner: But in what setting will these individual goals be determined? We need to give attention in this regard to the first three of the six problems posited.

Newlon: I approve of Dr. Bruner's emphasis on the social setting.

Wood: The American Council Cumulative Record provides about 4/5 of space for non-academic, social, community, and personality factors, and only 1/5 to the academic.

Bruner: Why don't you spend more time developing measures of these social and personality aspects?

Wood: Lack of objectivity and of financial aid.

Bennett: Would Dr. Tyler agree that the cycles of evaluation previously mentioned should include long term follow-up to check upon effectiveness with which individuals now in school are meeting life demands in the emerging social order and adjusting wholesomely?

Tyler: Our plan includes such follow-up, and some has already been done.

Cox: The environment is a complex whole and cannot be studied in parts.

Tyler: We must analyze aspects of this environment to see what learnings evolve out of various situations.

Taba: May not effective evaluation push practice instead of lagging behind practice?

Bruner: How far shall we encourage untrained teachers to use these new techniques of evaluation? Will such use hurt or help the movement? Many people working in Curriculum seem to have helped.

Tyler: Teachers need expert supervision or direction.

Question from audience: How may we shift the teacher's viewpoint to the realization that evaluation is an integral part of the teaching and learning process?

Taba: We learn by doing, not preaching.

Wood: Our teacher training institutions must help by stressing this instead of methods and generalized subject matter prescription.

Evaluation is a continuous process not a task to be completed.

Group II. Integration. Presiding: Hollis Caswell,
George Peabody College.

1. Report of the Society's Committee on Integration
By L. Thomas Hopkins, Teachers College

General Plan of Work

Last June I was appointed by the Executive Committee of the Society for Curriculum Study to prepare a manuscript on integration. Consultation with many persons in the country interested in this problem led to the projection of a study involving three parts:

- Part I - Bases for integration in fields other than education.
- Part II - Educational implications of such findings.
- Part III - Practices in the country that best met the conditions of these educational implications.

Since Part I of the study involves the use of specialists, the following individuals are preparing manuscripts which will be available about April first:

The Viewpoint and Problem - L. Thomas Hopkins, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The Biological Basis of Integration - J. William Buchanan, Professor of Zoology, Northwestern University.

- The Philosophical Basis of Integration - Pickens E. Harris, Professor of Education, University of Pittsburgh.
- The Psychiatrist's Contribution to Integration - I. H. MacKinnon, M.D., Head, New York State Psychiatric Hospital, Columbia Medical Center.
- The Psychological Evidence Underlying Integration - Goodwin Watson, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- The Relationship of Society to Integration - E. C. Lindeman, Professor of Sociology, New York School of Social Work.
- The Arts and Integration - Sybil Browne, State Normal School, Newark, N. J.

Part II

- The Type of Curriculum Which These Findings Seem to Imply - L. Thomas Hopkins, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Part III

This committee will be appointed after April first.

General Viewpoint of the Individuals now
Preparing Manuscript for Part I.

The unit of experience is any particular instance of the individual interacting with a situation within his environment. When a change either within or without the individual causes the equilibrium to be upset there occurs a strain called need, want, wish, drive, and the like. To satisfy this need and to restore the desired equilibrium the individual moves against the situation to relieve it. In this movement he acts:

- A. Against the situation as a whole, then against the parts.
- B. As a whole organism; i.e., all aspects of his being are involved: 1. He thinks. 2. He feels. 3. He has internal glandular secretions. 4. He has physical movements, etc.

Whenever the situation is sufficiently novel, unique, or difficult, no old response will meet the need. The individual must develop a new one or failure will result. This means that one aspect of learning is contriving for or creating a new response to meet the conditions of the new situation. Since the individual meets each new situation with the accumulated results of past learning, he has also the important problem of incorporating the newly created response into the working aggregate of existing behavior patterns. In his attempt to deal with the situation the individual learns (incorporates in his organismic aggregate of existing behavior patterns) whatever he accepts as aiding him in the successful restoration of the equilibrium. Witness the case of a child who can obtain what he wants from his mother by an emotional tantrum. Concomitantly, he develops purposes, clarifies meanings, deepens appreciations, builds standards of value, sizes up other individuals, and the like.

In facing effectually a sufficient variety of life situations, the individual: a. Develops by successive accumulations a thought and value system; i.e., he organizes various aspects related to the successful conclusion of the successive experiences for greater use in succeeding experiences. b. Integrates himself as a personality. c. If he has done (a) and (b) successfully in relation to actual life situations, he becomes integrated with his environment.

When the interaction is successful the individual "controls" his relationship in or to the situation so that the result is accompanied by a feeling of adequacy. However, an individual may feel adequate, build up a thought and value system related thereto, and consider himself integrated as a personality but not be integrated with his environment since he has not built this behavior in the matrix of social reality but rather in an "escape from reality." When this condition occurs something has gone wrong in the interaction; the type of situation faced, the imperative need for some immediate response, the biological desire of the self to control, the mistaken identity as to the cause of the final feeling of adequacy or inadequacy, a brooding over the results, and many others. When there is an insufficiency of what has been taken into account, the interaction of the situation is not "cleared," but has an emotional "hangover." Under such conditions an individual is really maladjusted. Therefore wholesome integration of the individual can occur only as he is integrated with the realities of his environment.

The extent of the integration of the individual is determined by his behavior. In general, the integrated individual: a. Makes wide contact with the environment. b. Approaches the ensuing disturbances or problems with confidence, courage, hope, optimism. c. Collects, selects, and organizes material for the solution of these problems. d. Draws relevant conclusions. e. Puts into practice the conclusions in changed behavior. f. Takes responsibility for the consequences of his behavior. g. Uses feelings either as instruments or ends as compatible with the preservation of wholeness. h. organizes pertinent aspects of his successive experiences so that they are better available for use in subsequent experiences.

In other words, the integrated individual makes many contacts in a wide environment, resolves the ensuing disturbances with the best use of intelligence available at that time, thereby building dynamic drives and cumulative technique for use in examining subsequent experience.

In sharp contrast, the disintegrated individual: a. Moves within a narrow, increasingly circumscribed environment. b. Attempts to escape the disturbances or problems which movement in such limited environment raises. c. Meets only those disturbances from which there is no escape with a feeling of inferiority, inability to solve the problem, lack of confidence, and in many cases, despair. d. Collects materials for the solution of problems emotionally more than intellectually. e. Organizes materials on the basis of feeling rather than intelligence. f. Draws highly irrelevant conclusions with increasing frequency. g. Reviews and modifies conclusions without the addition of new and pertinent data. h. Acts with undue caution and restraint in translating his conclusions into overt behavior. i. Accepts the consequences of his behavior unwillingly when the invalidity or irrelevancy of his conclusions have been established. j. Withdraws to a greater degree within his environment tending to escape more disturbances, and thereby building greater lack of confidence in himself to meet reality. k. Finds an outlet for the presentation of his integrity in an imaginary world, thus developing a disassociated and disintegrated personality.

In short, the disintegrated individual tries to escape meeting the problems which movement in his limited environment thrusts upon him. When escape is impossible he responds more by emotion than by intelligence and gradually decreases both in range of movement and in power to grapple with his problems until he becomes uncertain, hesitant, fearful of himself and the society in which he lives.

The Biological Bases for Integration

Each individual at birth has an integrated organism which operates on a physiological level. The problem of education is to aid the individual to maintain such integration, while at the same time to raise the level of its operation.

Each individual inherits a capacity to learn how to act intelligently. He has potential ability to develop meanings, anticipate consequences, build a thought and value system, and define ideals. Through this capacity to learn how to act intelligently, the change is made from a physiological organism to thoughtful individuality and intelligent behavior.

Each individual inherits a tendency to emotional stability under ordinary environmental conditions.

The Biological Bases for Disintegration

The neuro-muscular system of the individual is not much above that of primitive man. Meantime, the social environment has changed so rapidly that the individual must live in a world differing radically from that of the cave man. His neuro-muscular system has not yet evolved to the point where it can cope intelligently with sudden social changes. This difference between the physiological organism and the social environment may have decided disintegrating effects.

The capacity to learn to act intelligently evolves slowly. It includes too many complicated and interrelated aspects to discuss here. If the individual be placed in an environment involving responses which cannot be intelligently made, serious harm may result in the development of the slow capacity to act intelligently, without which an individual cannot integrate himself on a higher level.

The neuro-muscular system matures more slowly than social needs demand. The resulting conflict between neuro-muscular ability and social demands may promote disintegration.

There is in each individual a tendency to develop and expand the ego, or promote his own individuality. Biologists differ as to the extent to which this is involved in the germ plasm. However, whether it be due to biological heredity or the influence of the social environment, the tendency to over-develop and expand the ego may have serious defects.

Environmental Conditions That Make for Integration

Early relationships in small primary social groups, such as the family. Here the individual comes to recognize himself and others and to develop simple meanings concerning the social relationships. These are all valuable in developing adjustments in wider areas with larger social groups.

From the small primary group each individual obtains love, affection, and a feeling of security in an adult. This probably maintains until the period of adolescence and constitutes one of the important sources of integration during these immature years.

The opportunity to develop to a balanced degree the ego or the individuality. The important consideration here is the method and extent of such development.

Opportunity for the expanding and differentiating contacts with the environment to be guided by adults so that the principle of thinking and acting intelligently may be continuously developed.

Environmental Conditions That Make for Disintegration

Many children are not reared in small primary social groups such as the family.

Frequently the child does not find any one in the environment who gives love, affection, and security until such time as he can maintain his integration by his own intelligent behavior.

Many conditions in the environment suppress individuality, resulting in its outlet in abnormal forms of behavior or in a total inability of the individual to cope vigorously with the problems of normal adjustment. In this respect the school may be an important factor.

Many conditions in the environment demand that the individual conform unintelligently to fixed social patterns. This tends to break down the principle of intelligent interaction of the individual with the environment.

Many interactions of the individual in environment result in a feeling of injustice, unfairness, lack of consideration for all persons involved. When this happens, as was pointed out above, the situation is not "cleared," but results in an emotional "hangover," which has highly disintegrating effects if it persists. The individual places too great dependence upon someone else for security, thus tending not to build techniques for more intelligent subsequent behavior.

Conclusions

1. Individuals are born as internally integrated physiological organisms.
2. Through interaction with environment, the individual must integrate himself on a continuously higher level.
3. Individuals at all times struggle to maintain integration both within themselves and with the environment.
4. In the process of integration at a higher level, the individual expands and differentiates his total behavior patterns.
5. Self individuality and personality traits are differentiated and developed in the process of maintaining unity, balance, harmony, and integration.
6. While curriculum implications have not yet been studied, it appears as if one important criterion for evaluating the curriculum is its integrating effect for each individual at all ages in his growth. On the basis of this criterion, fundamental reconstruction is desirable.

2. A Critical Review of the Report, By Thomas H. Briggs, Teachers College

Integration of personality so that all factors are harmonious and effective is constantly affected by attempts to integrate an individual with his environment. William James is entirely correct in saying that each one must decide which of his empirical selves is to be dominant; adjustment must be satisfactory to self or there is a lack of real integration. That satisfaction may result, unfortunately, when the personality is limited in scope and harmonious with respect to a philosophy that is disapproved by the environing society. Education is concerned that integration be with the pragmatic best.

Integration is not one act, to be achieved finally. As such, it would preclude growth. It is a never-ending series of adjustments as new elements enter into a personality or as factors in the environment change or are appreciated. An individual subordinates some factors in his own personality and selects others in his environment that he may achieve success, even in a limited field, and have a sense of confidence. Success, confidence, and a feeling of adequacy and of belonging are essential to effectiveness.

It is highly desirable that the ideals of our democratic society be interpreted with more definiteness than hitherto in order that teachers may have a Magna Charta to direct them in their efforts to integrate an individual with society and also as a defense against attacks of those that disapprove the goals sought. That an individual may be developed to continue his own integrations, he should be made aware of the necessity, led to give devotion to ideals that are socially desirable, filled with defensible emotionalized attitudes, and largely experienced in understanding the unsolved problems of civilization.

3. Integration from the Psychologist's Viewpoint

By Raymond H. Wheeler, University of Kansas

The problem of integration is little understood today because of a radical shift in emphasis and point of view that took place during the middle nineteenth century and lasted until the first decade of the twentieth. This shift consisted of a general repudiation of an organic and integrative view of nature, which was universally held by scientists in the early nineteenth century, to an atomistic and mechanistic point of view. Our orthodox bond psychology, behaviorism, and conditioned reflex psychology were outgrowths of this reaction, abetted by what we may call the persistent error of the naive mind which is to look at things atomistically and to assume that wholes are built up from parts. It is totally impossible to understand the problem of integration by assuming bonding, fusing, or associative processes of any kind. Instead the problem can be understood only on the basis of the organismic principles of closure and individuation.

Further, educators are handicapped by the false notion that the correct view is "the middle of the road". There never was a middle of the road in science. Mistakes and false notions have never been corrected by means of an eclecticism. On the contrary each step of progress has been made by means of a complete redefinition of fundamentals. The term integration, or integrated whole, is vague to the educator today only because of the logical fallacies in his thinking, not because the concept itself or the condition in nature which it describes is ambiguous or lacking in precision. The laws of integrated wholes are the most precise and predictive in science generally, not only in psychology. Educators therefore face the task of learning of these laws and then of abandoning the illusion that associative laws are either concrete or predictive. Experiments have demonstrated again and again that they are not predictive.

All this means that we face the problem of reversing our notions of what is tangible and what is not and of beginning with situations and states of nature which we learned, in terms of a false atomistic science, were fundamentals. The whole is primary, not the parts.

The history of science and of human progress enables us to predict that the contributions being made now and that have been made since 1915 will not be fully understood, appreciated, and adequately applied for forty or fifty

years. However, educational leadership is definitely on the right track. Regarding the curriculum, fusion methods will never be adequate, for they begin in the wrong place and are based on a wrong conception of fundamentals. The basic principle of learning and of curriculum formation is transposition, and transposition will not occur unless subject matter is universally taught in the light of general, transposable principles.

4. Discussion

Panel members: Fred C. Ayer, Thomas H. Briggs, Wm. H. Bristow, C. L. Cushman, L. T. Hopkins, Grayson Kefauver, J. L. Meriam, R. H. Wheeler.

The following observations were made in the discussion period which followed the three presentations reported above: The student himself must do the integrating; it cannot be done for him. The well-integrated individual has a considered system of values with which he harmonizes his conduct. Disintegration results from the compartmentalizing of ideals. To attempt to separate the individual from the society in which he has his being is to attempt to set up an artificial dualism. The individual is always faced with the two problems of (1) maintaining integration within himself and (2) maintaining membership in his social group. The work of Mr. Hopkins' committee was commended and characterized as a sound approach to the problem of integration.

Monday, February 24, 1936.

Practical Possibilities and Limitations in State Curriculum Programs. Presiding: Fred C. Ayer, University of Texas

1. State Uniformity vs Local Adaptation By F. W. Stemple, University of West Virginia

I want to approach this problem from my own state background: In population West Virginia is 1/4 as large as New York City and about 1/2 as large as Chicago, about the same size as Detroit and Philadelphia, and little, if any, larger than Los Angeles. In West Virginia there is no city that has yet reached the 100,000 mark. Consequently my point of view is somewhat colored by my consideration of the state as something free of large municipal influences and possibilities.

The size of the state, with its comparatively sparse population; its industry, largely mining or dependent on mining, necessitating establishment of rather small towns and mining camps; its mountains, making transportation difficult and thus precluding consolidation have tended to keep the schools small with a consequent curtailment in expenditures on supplies and equipment. This is reflected especially in the dearth of professional literature in the libraries. In a recent survey¹ there were found six books on curriculum construction listed as available in from 12% to 35% of the high schools of the state.

¹ M. Avery Dotson - A Study of the Principal's Personal Professional Library in West Virginia. Unpublished master's thesis, West Virginia University, 1935.

In another survey² of the extra-instructional status of the secondary teachers of West Virginia it was found that the median number of professional magazines used by the teachers was .5. "30.5% of the teachers utilize the West Virginia School Journal in their reading while a total of only 15% mentioned the N.E.A. Journal, School Life, School Executive's Magazine, Nation's Schools, American School Board Journal, High School Teacher, Educational Review, School Review, School Arts, and School Activities."

West Virginia has recently assumed an obligation to finance its schools. As in most states it had constitutionally established rights to assume control of schools and, like most other states, it had up to 1932 allowed local communities to bear about 96% of school financing. Now the state furnishes 55% of the costs. State support of education perhaps gives a right to prescribe courses that it otherwise had no right to assume.

Coming back to my reference to background, I think you can readily see that I would be influenced to think that the state might well assume the obligation and privilege of imposing a state program, first, because the local teachers have poor facilities for making any great and progressive revisions and, second, because the state perhaps has that right now that it has assumed the most of the financial burden of maintaining the schools.

How the Curriculum Changes

A young teacher started his life's work in high school, teaching chemistry. His methods and content were dependent on two things, - his experience as a student in college chemistry and the high school text book used. At that time there were few texts available but these were very much alike because they represented the consensus of opinion of college teachers of chemistry of what ought to be in a text. Before his first year was over he was dissatisfied with his methods and with the material he was using, so he began to look for new texts and to hunt the journals for suggestions from other teachers. After while he got the idea of "activity analysis" and he taught his chemistry as something that helps "to do better those things that have to be done anyway." Then one day some one, in some way, brought to his attention that out of science ought to be born in the pupil the "scientific attitude". Thus was built up in that teacher by a sort of "scissors and paste" method, a curriculum of his own.

In my opinion the most notable piece of state curriculum construction that has been done in the last ten years is that of our neighbor, Virginia. But we in West Virginia have an opportunity to hear reactions that the Virginia Committee may not hear. The most common is generalized in the following statement, "We just can't use it. Our teachers are overwhelmed, for it is so far removed from what they have been accustomed, that they feel they are on entirely new ground." This is not a criticism of what has been accomplished there but an evidence of the fact that the curriculum in any school is just that material the teacher has made a part of himself.

The student of programs of schools throughout this nation cannot help but see a very marked similarity of work done in all the schools. As a general thing a pupil transferring from Ithaca, N. Y., to Morgantown, W. Va., from Cumberland, Md., to St. Louis, Mo., or from any other city or village in any

2. Dennis Knapp - Extra-instructional Status of High School Teachers, Unpublished master's thesis, West Virginia University, 1934.

state to any other village or city in any other state, is comparatively little handicapped so far as the various curricula are concerned. This, in a nation, and under a school system that allows for free choice of materials and methods, is a phenomenon that practically beggars ingenuity to explain. However, I think the explanation lies in one or all of the following: 1. Wide spread use of the same textbooks, or textbooks whose content is almost the same. 2. Similarity in the college training of teachers throughout the United States. 3. The recognized universality of the needs of pupils all through the nation. 4. The wide spread influence of accrediting agencies.

The changes that take place from time to time are slowly taking place and are in fact marked more as trends than any sudden far reaching revolutionary ideas. As one proof of this point one need only to remember the progress of the junior high school movement. The movement got its first big impetus in the report of the "Committee of Ten" in 1890 resulting in the first junior high school in 1910, twenty years later!

New Ideas and New Points of View Slow to Reach the School

During the last decade -- for lack of any exact time defining such interest -- there has been a great deal written and said about the need for change in what is taught in the schools. Problems of employment, conditions of the home, interest in government, balancing of consumption and production, more attention to the spiritual and less to the material, social-conscience versus individual selfishness, social security, control of crime through character development, individual and social temperance, realization of an international interest, are just a few of the things that have received an enormous amount of attention. But these do not indicate to me that there is anything of a revolutionary character taking place in our American social life. The kind of material now found in the writings of our best thinkers can be paralleled with the same sort of material written in other periods of American life. However, there are changes taking place, and teachers are very slow to reflect such changes in what is being done in the schools. As pointed out in the beginning of this paper, conditions in my state - I believe we are not unlike any other state in this respect - are such that teachers cannot quickly respond to any new demands placed on the schools. Teachers in training and teachers in service must be continuously educated to make adjustments. Curricula, as previously pointed out, are more marked by trends than by any sign of abandonment of the old and building of the new. Furthermore the curriculum of any school is only that which is in the mind of the teacher. Therefore, in considering a state curriculum, I have in mind, not the abandonment of an old curriculum but rather the revision of what is already in existence, the bringing to the attention of the teacher the newer demands, the suggestion of ways to meet such demands, and the abandonment of old material that is worthless. In other words the state curriculum is a means of bringing to teachers and their supervisors the progressive trends that available time, facilities, and experience would make otherwise practically unavailable.

What Then is the Point of View Regarding a State Curriculum?

The curriculum of a state system of schools must be described in terms of that common body of ideas relative to essentials and procedures possessed by the great majority of, if not by all, the teachers in the state.

Such a curriculum is one that has been touched and influenced by all the varying and various experiments and innovations described in educational literature, and attempted in rooms of the same school, schools of the same county, or in isolated instances and brought to the attention of teachers through observation or word of mouth. This is the curriculum that has come to the teachers as a social heritage. Obviously such a curriculum is not a sudden imposition of some new and entirely unfamiliar type of experience. Obviously the teachers have all had a large part in its construction.

With such a conception of the state curriculum the West Virginia Revision Committee organized its work so that the results should be the combined contributions of all the teachers of the State. The first publication is a tentative outline of the work for the first six grades. This bulletin, with as much blank space in it as printed space, has been placed in the hands of 10% of the best teachers of the state. The teachers are asked to give instructions on what and how to teach, to consider contributions and to criticize points of view. The only thing the steering committee is doing is directing the teachers' attention to what are considered the centralizing purposes of education, asking how these can be attained. A state curriculum, constructed in this manner, is bound to be flexible with opportunity for choice of materials to suit the teacher's requirements, local adaptation being made, not in principles universal in application, but in illustrations, material, and methods with local coloring. A curriculum reflecting the common point of view, full of suggestions for attainment of purposes generally accepted, with innovations possible of repetition by others, with prescriptions growing out of trends rather than revolutionary ideas and ideals, and built by a state wide campaign that is educative and reviving in effect, with rich plentifulness of suggestions adaptable to all sorts of local conditions, such a curriculum can well be prepared by a state such as mine.

2. Possibilities and Limitations of Teachers' Contributions By Doak S. Campbell, George Peabody College

The possibilities and limitations of the teacher's contribution in a state curriculum program will be determined in large measure by three things:

1. The fundamental basis on which the curriculum program is projected.
2. The extent to which the administrative and supervisory machinery will free the teacher to participate.
3. The teacher's ability and training.

1. A curriculum program projected primarily to develop courses of study, whether on the basis of reorganized subject matter, or on various types of "units" to be taught, will receive comparatively little direct help from the average teacher. Acceptable courses of study of the type mentioned can be developed only by comparatively few teachers of superior ability, training, and experience. Participation by the rank and file of teachers will be limited largely to discovering the nature of the program, the plan of organization of materials, and the procedures suggested.

On the other hand, a curriculum program in which the production of courses of study is incidental, and in which attention is concentrated upon developing procedures that can be used by teachers of varying abilities in im-

proving their own classrooms, might conceivably enlist and use profitably the activities of most of the teachers in a state.

2. A positive limitation of the teacher's contribution may be the administrative and supervisory situation. Teachers will contribute little to any sort of program if the superintendent does not have an intelligent grasp upon the purposes and plans of the program. Teachers must not only be given to understand that they are free to participate, but must also be encouraged to do so. It is my belief that in many places the superintendent or the principal greatly limits the work of teachers.

3. The limitations due to the lack of ability and training of the teacher are not merely those that may be accounted for by the short period of training which characterizes so many teachers. This is, indeed, a severe limitation. However, the method or character of the teacher's pre-service training may constitute a severe limitation, regardless of the time spent in college.

Teachers whose college course lacked essential unity, being made up largely of so-called specialization in one or two fields of study; whose grasp of the function of the school was not provided; and whose liberal education lacked essential unity, could scarcely be expected to contribute much to a program which requires an understanding of child interest, child needs, and social needs.

3. Possibilities and Limitations in Integration

By Ernest Horn, University of Iowa

I am convinced of the value of certain types and degrees of integration. This conviction dates back nearly thirty years, to my experience as principal of the University Elementary School at the University of Missouri. This school was organized by Dr. J. L. Meriam at a time when various forms of integration or correlation were supported by the Herbartians, as well as by Dewey, Parker, and their followers. The entire program of the school was highly integrated. The course of study of the seventh grade, which I myself taught was organized about a single theme. There were no subjects, no textbooks, no desks, and no daily or weekly program. Subsequently, as a member of the training school staff at Colorado State Teachers College, as principal of the Speyer School, as director of the Scarborough School, and as director of the University Elementary School at the State University of Iowa, I have continuously been responsible for the supervision or conduct of experimental work involving various types of integration. It is impossible for anyone to have had such an experience as this without becoming convinced of the many values in integration. But it is equally impossible that such an experience should not disclose also its weaknesses, difficulties, and limitations.

New Organizations of Knowledge Not Necessary. A good many of the exponents of integrated programs seem to assume that we need a new organization of knowledge in terms of life values, that such an organization is an accomplished fact, that current integrated programs exemplify this organization, that they "integrate the child's personality," and that traditional subjects must go. The first assumption is true in the sense that social re-evaluation should be perennial. The other assumptions are largely or wholly erroneous.

That the content and organization of each school subject, as well as the content and organization of the course of study as a whole, should be constantly adjusted to the needs of modern life is beyond debate. Such adjustments must be made, however, by those who know both the subjects and the needs

of modern life. This revitalization of school subjects and the enrichment of the curriculum as a whole have been the chief concern of a large number of competent workers for the last twenty-five years. Within the memory of the members of this audience the subjects of the curriculum have been revolutionized in their content, in their patterns, and in the methods by which they are taught. This is true not only of such so-called content subjects as hygiene and history, but also of the so-called three r's--reading, writing, language, spelling, and arithmetic. The potentialities of research in the improvement of curricula have not, however, even been approximated.

Proponents of non-subject programs generally advance the argument that such programs, as compared with subject curricula, bear more closely on the present needs of children. What are the present needs of children? The fact is that we do not have in print any respectable pattern or series of patterns of what constitutes a good life for a child of six, of ten, or of any age. Neither the scientific nor the critical analysis of children's needs and interests has advanced very far. Only a few small areas have been investigated, such as the vocabularies of children, their health, their interests in poetry, and certain of their social adjustments. And even if these narrow fields of investigation be pieced out by critical thought, the resulting patterns bear little resemblance to the patterns of typical unit or activity curricula. Indeed, it is generally much easier to show the relationship of subjects to child needs than it is to show the relationship of most non-subject units to child needs. It is clear, for example, that the child's present life is enormously facilitated when he has learned to read and write, but it is not clear that it is equally facilitated by such so-called activities as have become traditional in non-subject curricula.

The Elementary Curriculum Should be Simplified. The present curriculum of the elementary school is vastly superior to that of 1900 in content, in emphasis, in organization, and in the methods as well as the instructional equipment by which learning is made effective. But it has not been simplified. Rather, it has been enriched and expanded. There is now more to be taught at every grade level than there was thirty years ago. The weekly program is more crowded than it was then and contains, on the average, more different periods. The world is steadily growing more complicated, and by our very attempt to reflect this world in the school, the curriculum has become more complicated also. We face anew, therefore, the problems of thirty years ago: How can we simplify the curriculum, and how can we reduce the number of periods in the daily and weekly program?

Nearly thirty years ago I pointed out several objectionable features in the cut-up programs of that time. These objections are equally pertinent to present programs. First, there is considerable administrative loss in closing one period and opening another. I estimate this loss to range from thirty minutes to an hour a day. Second, there is a much greater loss which comes from the interruption of interest and mind set in the rapid change from period to period. Third, there is probably a greater nervous strain than is found in programs with fewer periods. Fourth, planned activities and thoughtful work are impossible when the program is so badly cut up. Fifth, under such conditions verbalistic and formal teaching is almost inevitable.

Learning 3 R's in Connection with Other Subjects. I believe that proper integration offers real, although partial, solution to this problem of the cut-up program. For example, the skills and knowledges which are now developed in the three r's can be motivated, practiced, and maintained to a considerable degree in connection with other subjects or units in the school curriculum. In fact, these subjects cannot be taught efficiently out of relation

to other subjects or activities. This does not mean that the subjects are to lose their identity or that they are to have no place in the weekly program. It does mean that the time allotments for all the three r's may be greatly reduced and that no one of these tool subjects needs to be taught every day. It is probable, for example, that sufficiently serviceable handwriting could be developed in one thirty-minute period a week. I suspect that the total combined time allotment for arithmetic, spelling, handwriting, the mechanics of composition, and the development of skill and ability in reading could be reduced to not more than ninety minutes a day, providing, first, that these subjects are integrated as needed with other subjects and activities in the curriculum, and second, that the teaching in the special periods devoted specifically to these subjects is guided by the best modern knowledge of learning. The present average weekly time allotment for reading in grade two is over four hundred minutes. I believe that reading would be improved if this allotment were reduced at least by half, and the time thus saved were given to larger opportunities for reading in connection with the other subjects or activities of the school. Heavy reductions could also be made with profit, assuming proper integration, in the allotments in arithmetic, language, writing, and spelling.

This reduction in time allotment for the three r's is justified if the time thus saved is assigned to geography, science, music, health, art, and literature. The values in these subjects are fundamental, permanent, and universal, and hence suited to the development of the abilities which are integrated with them. But no reduction in the time allotment for these skill subjects should be made if the time which is taken from them is to be used in carving the Tower of Pisa in soap; in learning to imitate farm animals; in making friezes which distort meaning by faulty symbolism; in carving fire boats out of wood; or in historical dramatization which is unauthentic in fact and in spirit. Such enterprises, all taken from modern "activities" or "units", are not only petty in themselves but frustrating in their effect on skills, knowledges, and attitudes which are integrated with them. They are incomparably inferior in worthy purpose, in capacity to stimulate thought, and in their concomitant effects to even the most traditional and formal courses of study in the fundamental skills.

Too Much Integration is Undesirable. One of the commonest misconceptions concerning integration is that we can't have too much of it. As a matter of fact too much integration is as bad as too little. Clear thinking and effective learning require that the mind focus upon some problem, the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which are pertinent to it, and that it reject all other matters. Multiplicity of association, unaccompanied by selection and emphasis, is a deadly enemy of clear thought.

We should integrate, then, not when we can but when we must. This means that the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which are integrated with the central problem must be indispensable to its proper solution. Any deviation from this principle is destructive both to vigorous thought about the central problem itself and to an intelligent use of the integrated subject matter. Thus one of necessity selects certain aspects of the history of Cuba in the study of the geography of that country not as a device for correlating or integrating history and geography but because the geography is otherwise unintelligible.

I am impressed particularly by the frequency with which, in so-called activity programs, the thought of the pupils is distracted from direct and vigorous attack on the central problem by wandering off into extended but petty projects in soap carving, paper cutting, frieze making, and unauthentic dramatization.

The distortion which comes from too much integration is most marked when all or most of the work of the school is organized around a single theme or problem. There is no one core of experience to which all else may be subordinated. The course of study, like life itself, must be many-sided.

A Systematic Course of Study is Necessary. I have already pointed out that it is necessary to have a systematic course of study in each of the three r's if these important groups of abilities are to be developed beyond the level of mediocrity. And the function of these systematic courses of study is not merely, and perhaps not even chiefly, to guide the learning of these subjects in the special periods assigned to them on the program. It is just as important as a constant reminder that these skills shall be integrated when needed with the other subjects of the curriculum. For the teacher, absorbed in some aspect of these other subjects, may easily forget to emphasize the related skills which are essential to the solution of the problem at hand. The special courses of study in the three r's facilitate, therefore, rather than hamper the integration of these subjects with other subjects or activities of the school.

One of the most serious weaknesses of integrated curricula is their failure to provide for sequential or vertical integration. Units and activities follow each other without reason or pattern, whereas each unit should grow out of what has gone before and should lead up to what is to follow. And not only should the work of the school be sequentially integrated within the year or term, it should be integrated also from year to year.

Integration Must Rest on Social Analysis. There seems to be an assumption in some quarters that it doesn't make any difference what is chosen as a center of integration so long as the pupils like it. Nothing could be more destructive, ultimately, to the movement for integration. The value of any problem, unit, or activity, as the center for integration, tends to vary in direct proportion to its value in child and adult life.

Any integrated programs must rest squarely, therefore, upon a competent analysis of social values. And the more universal, the more crucial, and the more permanent the values inherent in any center of integration, the more satisfactory are the results which accrue to the related subjects or abilities which are integrated with it. It is absurd to subordinate an undeniably valuable skill or body of knowledge to a petty or superficial unit or activity. If the unit of integration be insignificant, the result in the related knowledge, skills, and attitudes will be insignificant also.

In conclusion, I should like to say that I have no quarrel with those who believe that they can make a curriculum that is more responsive to life needs or more conducive to child growth than are the best of our modern subject curricula. Strength to their arms! I must confess that such adventures have long made a special appeal to me. If better curricula can be made, let's have them, but until such curricula have been constructed, in explicit detail, as a result of the most competent and scholarly analysis of child and adult needs, we must regard them as mere intriguing possibilities. And even if a better course of study be devised for some unit, we should not attempt to incorporate it into school practice until the requisite instructional equipment has been provided.

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31.

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SOCIETY FOR CURRICULUM STUDY

Executive Committee

Chairman: Hollis L. Caswell,
George Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee.
Executive Secretary: Henry Harap,
Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

Herbert B. Bruner, 1936
C. L. Cushman, 1936
H. L. Caswell, 1937
Bess Goodykoontz, 1937
Paul R. Hanna, 1937
Fred C. Ayer, 1938
G. Robert Koopman, 1938

PURPOSES AND ACTIVITIES

The Society for Curriculum Study was founded for the following purposes: to enable curriculum workers to be mutually helpful; to promote thorough and progressive curriculum revision; to publish one or more journals devoted to the advancement of sound curriculum revision; to promote curriculum investigation, experimentation, and research.

The Society is a professional organization, including the following workers: curriculum directors in county, city, and state school systems; other administrative and supervisory officers who are primarily interested in curriculum; classroom teachers who are working on special curriculum problems; research workers and authors of curriculum studies; college and university instructors; curriculum workers in non-school organizations; and others who are especially interested in this professional field.

The CURRICULUM JOURNAL is the medium for the exchange of ideas among the members of the Society. It contains general articles on curriculum making, reviews, news notes, and various service materials. During the course of the year, the following materials are issued: an annual list of selected courses of study; an annual bibliography of curriculum making; an annual list of new textbooks; an annual list of the activities of the members.

From time to time the Society undertakes more elaborate projects which are published in printed form. During the last year, the Committee on Secondary Education published A CHALLENGE TO SECONDARY EDUCATION through The Appleton-Century Company. At the present time the Society is publishing a monthly pictorial magazine entitled BUILDING AMERICA.

There are about ten committees constantly at work on curriculum problems. At the present time the following committees are functioning: Committee on Courses of Study; Committee on Textbooks; Committee on Teacher Training; Committee on Bibliography; Committee on Higher Education; Committee on City School Curriculum, and Committee on Integration.

The annual meeting of the Society includes several sessions devoted to themes of special interest to the members. During the past two years the leaders of the state curriculum programs have met together for a morning session.

The annual membership fee is \$2.00 which includes a subscription to the CURRICULUM JOURNAL. During the current year BUILDING AMERICA, the Society's monthly pictorial magazine, is being sent free to members.

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